

Minimax Multiple t-tests for Comparing k Normal

Populations with a Control*

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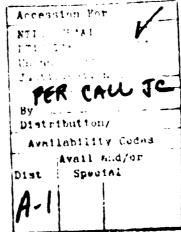
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/ABSTRACT

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and a common unknown variance 2.0. Based on independent samples of sizes n_1, \dots, n_k , the populations are to be partitioned into two sets, where the first one contains all n_k with $n_k = 0$, and where the other one contains the rest. At first it is assumed that $n_k = 0$ is known. Under an additive $n_k = 0$ loss function a minimax procedure is derived which is of a simple natural form. The proof of minimaxity makes use of the Bayes approach and involves a sequence of nonsymmetric priors, which play a similar role as a least favorable prior in simpler problems. Analogous results are presented for the case that $n_k = 0$ is not known. In this case, a control normal population is assumed to exist from which an additional sample of size $n_k = 0$ can be drawn.





Minimax Multiple t-tests for Comparing k Normal

Populations with a Control*

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1. Introduction.

Let $\gamma_1=N(\gamma_1,\gamma^2),\ldots,\gamma_k=N(\gamma_k,\gamma^2)$ be k normal populations with unknown means γ_1,\ldots,γ_k and a common unknown variance σ^2 . A population γ_i is considered to be "good" if $\gamma_i \sim \gamma_0$, and to be "bad" if $\gamma_i < \gamma_0$, $i=1,\ldots,k$. The control value γ_0 may either be known or unknown, where in the latter case a control population $\gamma_0=N(\gamma_0,\sigma^2)$ is assumed to be also available. The purpose of this paper is to derive statistical procedures which partition the k populations into "good" and "bad" ones, respectively, under the minimax criterion.

Let $X_i = (X_{i1}, \dots, X_{in_i})$ be a random sample from π_i , $i = 1, \dots, k$. If $x_i = x_i + x_i +$

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For a decision theoretic treatment of the problem a loss function has to be specified. Assume that in each ith component problem a nonnegative loss $a_i(b_i)$ occurs if π_i is "bad" ("good"), but wrongly classified as "good" ("bad"), and that no loss occurs if the classification is correct, $i=1,\ldots,k$. The overall loss is then assumed to be the total sum of these k losses. Formally, the loss function is thus of the form

(1)
$$L(\cdot,d) = \frac{k}{i=1 \atop d_i=1} a_i 1_{(-\infty,\frac{1}{0})} (\cdot \cdot_i) + \frac{k}{i=1 \atop d_i=0} b_i 1_{(-\infty,\frac{1}{0})} (\cdot \cdot_i),$$

where $\cdot \in \mathbb{P}^{k+1}$, $d \in (0,1)^k$, and $d_i = 0(1)$ stands for the decision that π_i is "bad" ("good"), $i = 1, \ldots, k$.

For the case of 0 known, let ** be the following rule.

(2)
$$\frac{1}{2}(X) = 0(1) \text{ iff } n_1^{1/2}(\tilde{X}_1 - v_0)/S < (>) c_1,$$

where S^2 is the usual unbiased pooled sample estimator of σ^2 and c_i is the lower $a_i(a_i+b_i)^{-1}$ quantile of a t-distribution with $n_1+\ldots+n_k-k$ degrees of freedom, $i=1,\ldots,k$.

Analogously, for the case of ounknown, let ** be given by

(3)
$$\delta_{i}^{**}(X) = O(1) \text{ iff } (n_{0}^{-1} + n_{i}^{-1})^{-1/2} (\overline{X}_{i} - \overline{X}_{0}) / S + (5) c_{i},$$

where S^2 is now derived from $(\underline{x}_0,\underline{x}_1,\ldots,\underline{x}_k)$, and c_i is the lower $a_i(\underline{a}_1\pm b_i)^{-1}$ quantile of a t-distribution with $n_0+n_1+\ldots+n_k-k-1$ degrees of freedom, $i=1,\ldots,k$.

The main results to be proved below will confirm that these two procedures are minimax for their associated cases.

The problem of comparing k normal populations with a control has been considered by many authors. To mention a few of the earlier papers, Paulson Time, unnett (1986), Gupta and Sobel (1988), and Tong (1969) have proposed and studied some natural procedures. Lehmann (1961) and Spjøtvoll (1972) have treated the problem with methods from the theory of testing hypotheses. Handles and mollander (1971) and Miescke (1981) have derived optimal procedures under the 1-minimax approach. An overview of this area of research can be found in Gupta and Panchapakesan (1979).

In many of the papers dealing with multiple comparisons with a control, the so-called indifference zones have been adopted, which means that wrong decisions with respect to parameters sufficiently close to v_0 do not result in any loss. Thereby, intervals around v_0 have to be specified which, together with certain other parameters to be chosen by the experimenter, make the proposed procedures look somewhat complicated.

because of its simplicity. There are only k pairs of losses to be chosen to determine the respective minimal procedure: $(a_1,b_1),\ldots,(a_k,b_k)$. These losses have a quite intural interpretation which facilitates the experimenter's choice if them. For each $i=1,\ldots,k$, the ratio of a_1 and b_1 represents the relative importance of avoiding the two types-of possible errors in the ith component decision problem. After these k ratios are determined, each pair may still be multiplied by an individual factor. These k factors may then be chosen in a way to reflect the relative importance of avoiding errors in the ith component decisions.

The method used in this paper to prove minimaxity of $\frac{1}{2}$ * and $\frac{1}{2}$ * for their respective cases is an asymptotic extension of the standard method, where a procedure is found to be minimax if it is Bayes rule with respect to a least favorable prior. After two technical lemmas are proved in Section 2, minimaxity of $\frac{1}{2}$ * in the case of a known $\frac{1}{2}$ 0 will be proved in Section 3, and the analogous result for $\frac{1}{2}$ ** will be derived in Section 4.

2. Two technical lemmas.

These are two main steps in the proof of minimaxity of 5* which will be used later. Since they are common for both cases, where γ_0 is known or unknown, they are presented in this section to avoid repetitions. Also, one may get a fairly clear idea about the proofs to come by just looking at the two lemmas given below.

The first result holds in fact more generally for all k-decision problems under additive loss. It has been proved in the r-minimax approach in Miescke (1981). By allowing to consist of all priors, it can be used also in the minimax approach. For convenience, let us state it below in a form suitable for the present context.

Lemma 1. A decision rule $\stackrel{M}{\longrightarrow}$ (& is minimax if there exists a sequence of priors $p_m(\cdot,q)$, $\cdot \in \mathbb{R}^k$, $q=\cdot^2 \to 0$, $m=1,2,\ldots$ such that for every $i\in \{1,\ldots,k\}$ the following holds true: For the ith component problem there exist Bayes rules $\cdot \frac{B}{im}$ with respect to p_m , $m\in \mathbb{N}$, such that

(4)
$$\sup_{\mathbf{R}} \mathbb{R}^{(i)}((\cdot,q), \frac{A}{i})^{n} \in \mathbb{R}^{k}, q > 0;$$

$$\lim_{\mathbf{R}} \inf_{\mathbf{R}} \mathbb{R}^{(i)}((\mathbf{p}_{m}, \frac{B}{im}),$$

where $R^{(i)}$ and $r^{(i)}$ denote the risk function and the Bayes risk, respectively, for the ith component problem.

Lemma 1 can be used to reduce the k-decision problem under additive loss to k individual 1-decision problems, the only common link being the goint triors p_m , and N. As can be anticipated, the second result will now be with respect to a single component problem. Since it may prove to be useful also in other situations, it is given below in a more general form than actually needed in the present context.

Consider the following situation. Let \underline{Y} be a sample from a parametric family of probability distributions $\{P_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{R}}$, where we wish to test $H_0\colon \mathbb{C}_0$ versus $H_1\colon \mathbb{C}_0$. Let the loss function be $L(\cdot,1)=L_1(\cdot,0)=0$ if \mathbb{C}_0 , $L(\cdot,0)=L_2(\cdot,0)=0$ if \mathbb{C}_0 , and $L(\cdot,\cdot)=0$ otherwise. This includes as a special case the 0-1 loss function, where $L_1=L_2=1$.

Borel sets of IR, such that the following constant c exists and is not zero:

(5)
$$c = \int_{-1}^{10} L_{1}(\pi) \tau(\pi) d\mu(\pi) + \int_{0}^{\infty} L_{2}(\pi) \tau(\pi) d\mu(\pi).$$

Let $-(\cdot) = c^{-1}L_1(\cdot) - (\cdot)$ if $-(\cdot) = c^{-1}L_2(\cdot) - (\cdot)$ if $-(\cdot) = c^{-1}L_2(\cdot) - (\cdot)$ if $-(\cdot) = c^{-1}L_2(\cdot) - (\cdot)$. Then the Bayes rules under $-(\cdot) = c^{-1}L_2(\cdot) - (\cdot)$ w.r.t. $-(\cdot) = c^{-1}L_2(\cdot) - (\cdot)$ if $-(\cdot) = c^{-1}L_2(\cdot) - (\cdot)$. Then the Bayes rules under $-(\cdot) = c^{-1}L_2(\cdot) - (\cdot)$ w.r.t. $-(\cdot) = c^{-1}L_2(\cdot) - (\cdot)$ if $-(\cdot) = c^{-1}L_2(\cdot)$ if $-(\cdot) = c^{-1}L_2(\cdot)$

(6)
$$r_L(\bar{\tau}) = c r_{0,1}(\bar{\tau}).$$

where the subscript of r indicates which loss function is assumed.

Proof: Let \circ be a decision rule and assume, without loss of generality, that it is non-randomized. Under the loss function L, the Bayes risk of \circ with respect to a prior \circ , for which \circ \circ 0 exists, is given by

$$r_{L}(x, y) = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) P_{L}(x, y) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left$$

from which the assertions follow immediately.

The above lemma will be applied in Section 3 in the following way. Let $E_1(\cdot)=a$ and $E_2(\cdot)=b$, respectively. Consider a (normal) prior density π w.r.t. the Lebesgue measure, which is symmetric w.r.t. θ_0 . Under 0-1 loss, its Bayes rule turns out to be very simple. It will be used later for the δ_{lim}^B 's in (4). Under the loss function E_0 , it is also Bayes rule w.r.t. the prior density π given by $\pi(\cdot)=2b(a+b)^{-1}\pi(\cdot)$ if $\pi(\cdot)=2a(a+b)^{-1}\pi(\cdot)$ if $\pi(\cdot)=2a(a+b)^{-1}$.

3. Known Control ...

As a natural first step, let us derive the Bayes rules for the given k-decision problem with respect to the standard family of conjugate priors. Although they are interesting in their own, only the Bayes rule for the case

of $a_1 \neq b_1$, $i \neq 1, \ldots, k$, will prove to be useful for the problem under concern. Reconsidering this rule through Lemma 2 as a Bayes rule w.r.t. a non-symmetric prior, it will be used in connection with Lemma 1 to prove minimaxity of $\pm *$.

Following DeGroot (1970), ch. 9.6, let $q=\frac{-2}{2}$ be the precision, and $q=\frac{-2}{2}$ be the pr

(8)
$$p(\cdot,q) = \frac{k}{k} p^{(i)}(\cdot,q) g(q), \quad y \in \mathbb{R}^k, \quad q > 0,$$

where $p^{(i)}(\cdot, q)$ is a $N(\cdot, \tau_i q)^{-1}$ density with known $\mu_i \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\tau_i > 0$, $i = 1, \dots, k$, and where

(9)
$$g(q) = \frac{1}{2} (1)^{-1} q^{x-1} e^{-xq}, q > 0,$$

Standard analysis leads to the following posterior distributions at X = x. Given Q = q, $\omega_1, \ldots, \omega_k$ are independent $N((\epsilon_1, \epsilon_1 + n_1 x_1)(\epsilon_1 + n_1)^{-1}, (q_{i_1}, n_i, r_i)^{-1})$, $i = 1, \ldots, k$, and marginally, Q follows a r-distribution

is the density of a redistribution with known parameters x + 0 and y = 0.

with parameters $+2^{-1}n$ and +1, where $n = n_1 + ... + n_k$ and

(10)
$$z' = z + 2^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \left\{ \frac{n_i}{j-1} (x_{i,j} - \overline{x}_i)^2 + z_i n_i (\tau_i + n_i)^{-1} (\overline{x}_i - \overline{x}_i)^2 \right\},$$

and where x_i denotes the sample mean of x_i , i = 1, ..., k.

for i.e. 1...,k. fixed, by looking at the posterior joint density of n_1 and n_2 , it can be seen that the posterior marginal density of n_2 is a t-distribution with . In the 22 degrees of freedom, with location parameter n_1 in n_2 , n_3 , n_4 , and scale parameter n_4 , where n_4 = 2.1 $(n_1 + n_2)^{-1}$.

The Baves rule $\frac{8}{3}$ for the ith component problem can be found by z ininizing the associated posterior expected loss. It is given by

on, by as no the results derived above,

(12)
$$\frac{B_{i}(\cdot) - I(0) \text{ iff } (\cdot, \cdot, \cdot + n_{i} \times_{i}) (\cdot, \cdot + n_{i})^{-1} - \rho_{i}(\cdot) + e_{i},$$

where e_i is the lower $a_i^{-1}a_i^{-1}b_i^{-1}$ quantile of a t-distribution with , decrees of freedom. Obviously, e^{iS} is then the overall Bayes rule for the problem.

For the general case of $a_1=a_1=b_1=1$, and $b_1=1,\dots,k$, the Bayes rule turns out to be of a very simple form $\frac{a_1}{a_1}$, say, where

16.7 ***
$$x_i = \frac{1}{3} \times (x_i) = 1, \dots, k$$
.

It is own candidate for the bases rules used on the right hand side of (4). Index the prior distribution given by (3) and (9), assume for a moment that $C = \mathbb{R}^n$ if fixed. From the results stated just after (9), it is easy to see that $\frac{0}{n}$ is Bayes rule for the ith component problem, and $\frac{0}{n}$ is overall

Therefore, in view of Lemma 2 and the remarks made at the end of Lection . It follows that for every $i \in \{1, \dots, r\}$ is also Bayes rule for the strong rate of the transfer of the strong rate of the stro

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Fig. 7. Candard as summerly show that for every $i=1,\dots,k$, the left hand side of A_i for $\frac{M}{3}$. It equal to

(16)
$$\sup_{k \to \infty} \mathbb{R}^{n-1} ((-1, 4), -1, 4) = \mathbb{R}^{n}, \quad 0 = a_i b_i (a_i \cdot b_i)^{-1}.$$

On the right hand side of (4), let $\frac{B}{m} = \frac{10}{m}$, and let p_m be equal to p as given in (14) and (15) with $\tau_1 = \dots = \tau_k = m$, $m \in \mathbb{N}$. Let $i \in \{1,\dots,k\}$ be fixed for the rest of the proof. We will show below that

(17)
$$\lim_{m \to \infty} r_{L}^{(i)} (\bar{p}_{m}, \bar{q}_{i}^{0}) = a_{i}b_{i}(a_{i}^{+}b_{i}^{-})^{-1},$$

which clearly completes the proof since under the loss function L given in (1), $\frac{0}{i}$ has been seen to be Bayes rule w.r.t. prior p_m , for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Under the 0-1 loss function, $\frac{0}{i}$ has also been seen to be Bayes rule w.r.t. prior p_m , say, which is equal to p as given in (3) and (9) with $\frac{1}{i} = \frac{1}{i} = \frac{$

(18)
$$r_{0,1}^{(i)}(p_{m}, q_{i}^{0}) = \int_{0}^{\infty} r_{0,1}^{(i)}(p_{m}, q_{i}^{0}, q_{i$$

where ϕ and : denote the standard normal density and cumulative distribution function, respectively. Clearly for every q > 0, the sum of the last two

integrals tends to 1/2 as m tends to infinity. Since the value of this sum is always between 0 and 1, uniformly in q>0 and $m\in\mathbb{N}$, it follows by Lebesques dominated convergence theorem that

(19)
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} r_{0,1}^{(1)} \left(p_n, \frac{0}{i} \right) = 1/2.$$

Applying now Lemma 2, in the way described below of (13), we get

(29)
$$r_{L}^{(i)}(p_{m}, \frac{0}{i}) = 2 a_{i}b_{i}(a_{i}+b_{i})^{-1} r_{0,1}^{(i)}(p_{m}, 5_{i}^{0}).$$

From this it follows that (17) holds, and therefore the proof of the theorems completed.

It should be pointed out that Lehmann (1957) has shown that the minimax-value of the ith component problem is equal to $a_ib_i(a_i+b_i)^{-1}$, $1 = 1, \ldots, k$. Therefore from (16) it follows that f_i^* is minimax for the ith component problem, $i = 1, \ldots, k$. It is a well known fact that student's t-test is minimax at the suitably chosen level of significance. However, this fact is of no use in the present context, since the overall minimax value may be less than the sum of the k minimax values of the k component problems.

As a final remark, let us mention that \underline{x}^* remains minimax if S^2 , the pooled sample estimator of z^2 , is based on a subcollection of observations from X, and if c_1,\ldots,c_k are properly adapted. However, such a modified procedure would have a strictly larger risk, except at $\underline{x}_1 = \ldots = \underline{x}_k = \underline{x}_0$. This follows from the fact that for every $i \in \{1,\ldots,k\}$, \underline{x}_i^* is the uniformly most powerful unbiased test at its level, whereas the modified procedures'

ith decision rule would only be an unbiased test at the same level of $b_1(a_i^*+b_i^*)^{-1}$. The modified procedure would thus be inadmissible. Whether or not * is admissible remains an open question.

4. Unknown Control a.

In this setting, an additional sample X_0 from population $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{2}{3}$, is observed. The analogous results to Section 3 can be derived in a similar way. Therefore the treatment of this case will be rather concase.

For every $i=1,\ldots,k$, given $Q=q_1,\ldots,k$ as the following properties. For every $i=1,\ldots,k$, given $Q=q_1,\ldots,k$, and distribution with mean $f_1(q_1,q_2)=1$, $f_2(q_1,q_2)=1$, $f_3(q_1,q_2)=1$, f

For i i 1,...,k fixed, by looking at the posterior joint density of $r_i \to 0$ and 0, it can be seen that the posterior marginal density of $r_i \to 0$ is a t-distribution with $r_0 + n + 2 +$

For the ith component problem the Bayes rule can be found by minimizing the associated posterior expected loss. It is given by

(21)
$$\frac{B_{i}(x)}{i}(x) = 1(0) \text{ iff } P = x_{i} + x_{0} = x_{0} + (1) b_{i}(a_{i} + b_{i})^{-1}$$

or, by using the results derived above.

(22)
$$\frac{B}{1}(x) = 1(0) \text{ iff } t_{10} + (1) = 0.00$$

where $e_{i(j)}$ is the lower $a_i(a_i+b_i)^{-1}$ quantile of a t-distribution with n_0+n+2i degrees of freedom.

For the special case of $i=a_0$, $n_0\tau_i=n_i\tau_0$, $a_i=b_i$, $i=1,\ldots,k$, the Bayes rule turns out to be of the simple form =00, say, where

(23)
$$\frac{00}{1}(x) = 1(0) \text{ if } X_{1} - \tilde{X}_{0} + (1) = 1,...,k.$$

Instead of following along the lines below of (13), there is a shorter way to prove minimaxity of '** in the present case. The main result of this section is

Theorem 2. Under the loss function (1), the multiple decision rule ***, as given in (3), is minimax. The minimax-value of the problem is equal to $\begin{bmatrix} a_1b_1 & a_1+b_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \end{bmatrix}^{-1}$.

Proof. Again, standard arguments show that for every $i=1,\ldots,k$, the left hand side of (4) for $-\frac{M}{i}=-\frac{\pi}{i}$ is equal to

(24)
$$\sup \{R_L^{(i)}((\cdot,q),\cdot; ++)\} \in \mathbb{R}^{k+1}, q+0. = a_ib_i(a_i+b_i)^{-1},$$

where the dimension of the --parameter space is now k+1.

On the right hand side of (4), instead of chosing $\frac{B}{m}$ to be $\frac{OO}{n}$, let rather $\frac{B}{m} = \frac{OO}{n}$ as before in the proof of Theorem 1. As to the priors of $OO = 1, \dots, OO = 1, OO = 1, \dots, OO = 1, \dots,$

Concluding Remarks:

The remarks given at the end of Section 3 hold in an analogous form for the situation considered above. They are omitted for brevity.

For the proofs of the two theorems, the proper choice of priors was crucial. The relevant parameters γ_i were assumed to be independent, whenever the nuisance parameter γ_i a was fixed. In the unknown control case, an attempt to use the principle of (location) invariance may not lead to the desired results if one assumes that, apriori, $\alpha_1 = \beta_0, \ldots, \beta_k = \beta_0$ are independent. This is due to the fact that at $X_i = X_i$, the posterior distribution of each $i_i = \beta_0$ would depend on all given observations. For the case of $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} k n c c c$ Randles and hollander (1971) have given an instructive example.

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procedure is derived which is of a simple natural form. The proof of minimaxity makes use of the Bayes upproach and involves a sequence of nonsymmetric priors, which play a simplar role as a least favorable prior in simpler problems. Analogous results are presented for the case that $\frac{1}{10}$ is not known. In this case, a control normal population is assumed to exist from which an additional sample of size $\frac{1}{10}$ can be drawn.

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